



BOSTON UNIVERSITY

GRADUATE SCHOOL

Thesis

INTRODUCTION TO THE SOLUTION OF ORDINARY LINEAR DIFFERENTIAL EQUATIONS WITH CONSTANT COEFFICIENTS

by

William Arthur Lowell (B.S. Bates College, 1918) submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts



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INTRODUCTION

1. Brief History. - The study of Differential Equations began very soon after the discovery of Differential and Integral Calculus, to which it forms a natural sequel. In 1676 Newton solved such an equation by means of infinite series but did not publish his results until 1693, the same year that Liebniz encountered them in his work. From then on progress was rapid. Such men as the Bernoulli brothers, Fontaine, Euler, Clairaut, Taylor and Lagrange became interested, and by the beginning of the nineteenth century many important results had been established but the methods developed were artificial, broad comprehensive principles lacking. Fuch's Memoirs (1866-68) gave the theory of Linear Differential Equations its birth, the Lie Theory of Continuous Groups (1884) advanced it and led Picard and Vessiot to develop a theory which is analogous to the Galois theory for algebraic equations.

2. <u>Importance of Linear Differential Equations</u>. -The problem of solving equations of this type is constantly met in scientific investigations, particularly in those dealing with the study of motions of various kinds. They are encountered in Algebra, Geometry, Mechanics, Physics, Chemistry, and Astronomy. Many problems in tangency, curvature, envelopes, oscillations of mechanical systems and of electric currents, bending of beams, conduction of heat, diffusion of solvents.

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3. <u>Method of Procedure</u>. - The method of reasoning used in developing the subject is largely the inductive type which, I believe, is consistent with the fact that it is of an introductory nature. Absolute rigor has been sacrificed in some instances for the purpose of simplifying the argument.

DEFINITIONS AND ASSUMPTIONS

4. <u>Differential Equations</u>. - An equation involving derivatives or differentials is a differential equation. If the equation involves a single independent variable, it is an ordinary differential equation; otherwise, it is a partial differential equation.

5. <u>Linear Differential Equation</u>. - A differential equation that is of the first degree in the dependent variable and its derivatives is a linear differential equation. The general form of the ordinary linear differential equation is velocity of chemical reactions, and celestial mechanics formulate themselves as linear differential equations of one of two types: - those with constant coefficients which are the more important, or those with variable coefficients. In fact, so great is the preponderance of these equations in Physics alone that the study of them in this field might well be called the study of Linear Differential Equations. The frequency of their occurrence in any one of the above mentioned branches of science sufficient justification for the special attention given them in this paper.

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5. Linear Differential Zouation. - A differential equation that is of the first degree in the dependent variable and its derivatives is a linear differential equation. The general form of the ordinary linear differential equation is

$$x_{0} \frac{d^{n}y}{dx^{n}} + x_{1} \frac{d^{n-1}y}{dx^{n-1}} + \dots + x_{n}y = x$$

Where X₀, X₁, ----- X_n and X are functions of x or constants. 6. <u>Homogeneous - Non-homogeneous Linear Differential</u> <u>Equation</u>. - A linear differential equation in which the right-hand member is zero is a homogeneous linear differential equation. When the right-hand member is a function of x, the equation is said to be non-homogeneous.

7. Solution of Differential Equation. - Any functional relationship (not containing derivatives) between the variables which causes a differential equation to reduce to an identity, is a solution or a particular integral of the equation. The meaning of the term "solution" in this theory is somewhat broader than that given it in Algebra. It is extended to include not only implicit algebraic forms such as $y = \alpha \propto \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$, but also symbolic forms such as $y = \int f(x) dx$ which cannot be expressed without integral signs.

8. <u>Assumptions</u>. - It is assumed in this discussion of the nth order that every linear differential equation, has a general solution, and that this solution involves n arbitrary independent constants.

HOMOGENEOUS LINEAR DIFFERENTIAL EQUATIONS

9. <u>General Theorem</u>. - The general homogeneous linear differential equation is of the form

 $x_0 \frac{d^n y}{dx^n} + x_1 \frac{d^{n-1} y}{dx^{n-1}} + \dots + x_{n} x_n y$

Where No. N1. ---- Ng and N are functions of x or constants. 6. Homogeneous - Non-homogeneous Linear Differential

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HOMOGENEOUS LINEAR DIVERSHTLAL SOUCHIONS

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(1)
$$x_0 \frac{d^n y}{dx^n} + x_1 \frac{d^{n-1} y}{dx^{n-1}} + \dots + x_n y = 0$$

where $x_0, x_1, \dots x_n$ are constants or functions of x. If
 $y = y_1$ is a particular integral of this equation, then
 $x_0 \frac{d^n y_1}{dx^n} + x_1 \frac{d^{n-1} y_1}{dx^{n-1}} + \dots + x_n y_1 \equiv 0$
Multiplying this identity through by an arbitrary constant c_1 ,
(2) $x_0 c_1 \frac{d^n y_1}{dx^n} + x_1 c_1 \frac{d^{n-1} y_1}{dx^{n-1}} + \dots + x_n c_1 y_1 \not\equiv 0$
This is the condition that $c_1 y_1^{e_1}$ is a solution of equation (1).
Similarly, if $y = y_2$ is another particular integral of (1),
 $= c_2 y_2$ is also a solution, and
(3) $x_0 c_2 \frac{d^n y_2}{dx^n} + x_1 c_2 \frac{d^{n-1} y_2}{dx^{n-1}} + \dots + x_n c_2 y_2 \equiv 0$
Adding identities (2) and (3)
 $x_0 c_1 \frac{d^n y_1}{dx^n} + x_0 c_2 \frac{d^n y_2}{dx^n} + x_1 c_1 \frac{d^{n-1} y_1}{dx^{n-1}} + x_1 c_2 \frac{d^{n-1} y_2}{dx^{n-1}}$

+ ----- + $X_n c_2 y_1 + X_n c_2 y_2 \equiv 0$

This is the condition that $c_1y_1 + c_2y_2$ is a solution of equation (1). Similarly, if n particular integrals $y_1, y_2, --$ y_n of (1) are known.

(1)
$$X_0 = \frac{d^n y}{dx} + X_1 = \frac{d^{n-1} y}{dx^{n-1}} + \dots + X_n y_1 = 0$$

where X_0 , X_1 , ---- X_n are constants or functions of x. If y = y, is a particular integral of this equation, then

$$x_{0} \frac{d^{n} y_{1}}{dx} + x_{1} \frac{d^{n-1} y_{1}}{dx^{n-1}} + \dots + x_{n} y_{1} \equiv 0$$

Hultiplying this identity through by an arbitrary constant or.

(2)
$$X_0 e_1 \frac{a^n y_1}{dx^n} + X_1 e_1 \frac{d^{n-1} y_1}{dx^{n-1}} + \dots + X_n e_1 y_1 = 0$$

This is the condition that $c_1y_1^{3/4}$ is a solution of equation (1). Similarly, if $y = y_2$ is another particular integral of (1), c_3y_2 is also a solution, and

(3)
$$X_0 c_8 \frac{d^n V_8}{dx^n} + X_1 c_8 \frac{d^{n-1} V_8}{dx^{n-1}} + \dots + X_n c_8 V_8 \equiv 0$$

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$$x_{0}c_{1} = \frac{a}{bx_{1}} y_{1} + x_{0}c_{2} = \frac{a}{bx_{1}} + x_{1}c_{1} = \frac{a}{bx_{1}} + x_{1}c_{2} = \frac{a^{n-1}y_{2}}{bx_{1}}$$

+ ----- + X_ncgy1 + X_ncgy2 = 0

This is the condition that $c_{1y_1} + c_{2y_2}$ is a solution of equation (1). Similarly, if n particular integrals y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n of (1) are known.

(4) $y = c_1y_1 + c_2y_2 + \dots + c_ny_n$ is a solution. Since the general solution of a differential equation involves n independent arbitrary constants, and since c_1 , c_2 , --- c_n are such constants, (4) is the general solution of equation (1). Hence the theorem:- If y_1 , y_2 , ---- y_n are n independent particular integrals of a homogeneous linear differential equation of the order n, the function $c_1y_1 + c_2y_2 + \dots + c_ny_n = y$ is its general solution.

10. <u>Constant Coefficients</u>. <u>Roots of Auxiliary</u> <u>Equation Real and Distinct</u>. - When X₀, X₁, ---- X_n in equation (1) are constants, it may be written

(1a)
$$k_0 \frac{d^n y}{dx^n} + k_1 \frac{d^{n-1} y}{dx^{n-1}} + \dots + k_n y = 0$$

Consider the solution of the equation

$$(5) \frac{dy}{dx} + ky = 0$$

which is a special case of (la). Separating the variables

$$\frac{dy}{y} + kdx = 0$$

$$\log y + kx = a$$

$$\log y - \log c = -kx$$

$$\frac{y}{c} = e^{-kx}$$

$$y = ce^{-kx}$$

(4) $y = c_1y_1 + c_2y_2 + \dots + c_ny_n$ is a solution. Since the general solution of a differential equation involves n independent arbitrary constants, and since c_1 , c_2 , $\dots + c_n$ are such constants, (4) is the general solution of equation (1). Hence the theorem: If y_1 , y_2 , $\dots + y_n$ are n independent particular integrals of a homogeneous linear differential equation of the order n, the function $c_1y_1 + c_2y_2 + \dots + c_ny_n = y$ is its general solution.

> 10. Constant Coefficients. Roots of Auxiliary Roustion Roal and Distinct. - When X_0 , X_1 , ---- X_n in equation (1) are constants, it may be written

(1a)
$$k_0 \frac{d^2 y}{dx} + k_1 \frac{d^{n-1} y}{dx^{n-1}} + \dots + k_n y = 0$$

.

Consider the solution of the equation

(5)
$$\frac{4y}{dx} + ky = 0$$

which is a special case of (1a).

$$\frac{dy}{y} + kdx = 0$$

$$\log y + kx = a$$

$$\log y - \log c = -k$$

$$\frac{y}{c} = e^{-kx}$$

$$x = ce^{-kx}$$

This solution suggests that a particular integral of (1a) may be of the form $y = e^{mx}$. Assuming that this is the case then

$$k_{om}^{n} e^{mx} + k_{1}^{n-1} e^{mx} + \dots + k_{n}^{mx} \equiv 0$$

$$e^{mx}(k_0m^n + k_1m^{n-1} + \dots + k_n) \equiv 0$$

If m is a root of

(6) $k_0 n^n + k_1 n^{n-1} + \dots + k_n = 0$

which is called the auxiliary equation, $y = e^{mx}$ will be a solution. Let m_1 , m_2 , ---- m_n be distinct real roots of equation (6). By the theorem just proved

(7) $y = c_1 e^{m_1 x} + c_2 e^{m_2 x} + \dots + c_n e^{m_n x}$

will be the general solution of (la).

The solution of $3 \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + 7 \frac{dy}{dx} - 6 y = 0$ will serve as an illustration of the application of (7). The auxiliary equation is

 $3 m^{2} + 7 m - 6 = 0$ (3m-2)(m+3) = 0 $m = \frac{2}{3}, m = -3$ Substituting in (7)

$$y = c_1 e^{\frac{2}{3}x} + c_2 e^{-3x}$$

This solution suggests that a particular integral of (1a) may be of the form $y = e^{mX}$. Assuming that this is the case then

komnomn + kimn-lonn + ---- + kne^{mn} = 0

 $e^{m\pi}(k_0m^n + k_1m^{n-1} + \dots + k_n) \ge 0$ If m is a root of

(6) $\log^{11} + \log^{n-1} + \cdots + \log^{n-1} = 0$

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The solution of $3 \frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} + 7 \frac{dy}{dx} = 6 \ y = 0$ will serve as an illustration of the application of (7). The auxiliary

 $3 m^2 + 7 m - 6 = 0$ (3m-2)(m+3) = 0 $m = \frac{2}{3}, m = \frac{2}{-3}$ Substituting in (7) $y = c_1 e^{-3x}$

e,

11. <u>Roots of Auxiliary Equation Complex Imaginary</u> all <u>and Distinct</u>. - If the roots of equation (6) are complex imaginary and distinct, they will occur in pairs of the form $\alpha + \beta$ i and $\alpha - \beta$ i. By the theorem **proved** on page 5 the solution of (1a) will be

 $y = c_1 e^{(\alpha_1 + \beta_1 i)x} + c_2 e^{(\alpha_1 - \beta_1 i)x} + \dots$

$$c_{n-1}e^{(\alpha_{\frac{n}{2}}+\beta_{\frac{n}{2}}i)x} + c_ne^{(\alpha_{\frac{n}{2}}-\beta_{\frac{n}{2}}i)x}$$

This can be written

 $y = c_{1}e^{\alpha_{1}x}e^{\beta_{1}ix} + c_{2}e^{\alpha_{1}x}e^{-\beta_{1}ix} + \dots + c_{n-1}e^{\alpha_{n}x}e^{\beta_{n}ix} + c_{n}e^{\alpha_{n}x}e^{\beta_{n}ix} + c_{n}e^{\beta_{n}ix}e^{\beta_{n}ix} + c_{n}e^{-\beta_{n}ix} + c_{n}e^{-\beta_{n}ix} + \dots + e^{\alpha_{n}x}(c_{n-1}e^{\beta_{n}ix} + c_{n}e^{-\beta_{n}ix})$

From Euler's Formulas

$$e^{i\theta} = \cos\theta + i\sin\theta$$

 $e^{-i\theta} = \cos\theta - i\sin\theta$

We may express the exponentials e hix and e hix in trigonometric

form as follows:-

 $e^{i\beta x} = \cos\beta x + i \sin\beta x$ $e^{-i\beta x} = \cos\beta x - i \sin\beta x$

11. Roots of Auxiliary Squation Complex Imaginary

and Distinct. - If the roots of equation (6) are complex imaginary and distinct, they will occur in pairs of the form $\kappa + \beta_1$ and $\kappa - \beta_1$. By the theorem protect on page 5 the solution of (1a) will be

 $y = c_1 e^{(\alpha_1 + \beta_1 1)x} + c_2 e^{(\alpha_1 - \beta_1 1)x} + \dots$

+ $c_{n-1}e^{(a_{n}^{*}+b_{n}^{*})x}$ + $c_{n}e^{(a_{n}^{*}-b_{n}^{*})x}$

This can be written

 $y = c_{1}e^{ix} + c_{2}e^{ix} + c_{2}e^{ix} + \dots + c_{n-1}e^{ix} + \dots + c_{n-1}e^{ix} + \dots + c_{n-1}e^{ix} + c_{n}e^{ix} + e^{ix} + e^{ix}$

From Euler's Formulas

Substituting these values in equation (8)

a

$$y = e^{\alpha_1 x} (c_1 \cos \beta_1 x + c_1 i \sin \beta_1 x + c_2 \cos \beta_1 x - c_2 i \sin \beta_2 x) + ---- + e^{\alpha_2 x} (c_{n-1} \cos \beta_2 x + c_{n-1} i \sin \beta_n x + c_n \cos \beta_2 x) - c_n i \sin \beta_n x) y = e^{\alpha_1 x} [(c_1 + c_2) \cos \beta_1 x + i(c_1 - c_2) \sin \beta_1 x] + ---- + e^{\alpha_2 x} [(c_{n-1} + c_n) \cos \beta_n x + i(c_{n-1} - c_n) \sin \beta_n x]] f c_1 + c_2 = A_1, i(c_1 - c_2) = B_1, c_3 + c_4 = A_2, i(c_3 - c_4) = B_2, nd so on,$$

9)
$$y = e^{\alpha_1 x} (A_1 \cos \beta_1 x + B_1 \sin \beta_1 x) + \dots + e^{\alpha_n x} (A_n \cos \beta_n x + B_n \sin \beta_n x)$$

will be the general solution of (1a) in which, if
$$A_1$$
, A_2 , ---, B_1 , B_2 , ---- are real, c_1 , c_2 , c_3 , ---- must be assumed to be imaginary.

Another convenient form of this solution may be obtained as follows:- Multiply and divide each term of equation (9) by arbitrary constants k_1 , k_2 , ----- $k_{\frac{77}{2}}$ so chosen that $\frac{A_1}{k_1} = \sin a_1$, $\frac{B_1}{k_1} = \cos a_1$, $\frac{A_2}{k_2} = \sin a_2$, $\frac{B_2}{k_2} = \cos a_2$, and so on. Such a selection is possible for, if $\frac{A_1}{k_1} = \sin a_1$, and $\frac{B_1}{k_1} = \cos a_1$, then $A_1^2 + B_1^2 = k_1^2$ or $k_1 = \sqrt{A_1^2 + B_1^2}$. Since $\sin^2 a_1 + \cos^2 a_1 = 1$, and since

Substituting these values in equation (8) $y = e^{\alpha_1 x} (c_1 \cos \beta_1 x + c_1 t \sin \beta_1 x + c_2 \cos \beta_1 x - c_3 t \sin \beta_3 x)$ --- + e (cn-1 cos / x + c -1 sin / x + c cos / x - cni sin (nx) $y = e^{\alpha_1 x} \left[(c_1 + c_2) \cos \beta_1 x + 1(c_1 - c_2) \sin \beta_1 x \right] + \dots$ + 0 1 [cn-1 + cn) 000 (x + 1(cn-1 - cn) 01n / x] If $c_1 + c_2 = A_1$, $i(c_1 - c_2) = B_1$, $c_3 + c_4' = A_2$, $i(c_3 - c_4') = B_2$. and so on. (9) $y = 6^{\alpha_1 \chi} (4_1 \cos \beta_1 \chi + B_1 \sin \beta_1 \chi) + \dots$ + e (Ancos Ant + Bn sin Ax) will be the general solution of (1a) in which, if A1, A2, ---, B1, B2, ----- are real, c1, c2, c3, ---- must be assumed to be inaginary. (?) noiteupe to must does abivib bna ylqijimi -:avollor as by arbitrary constants M1, M2, ---- kg so chosen that $\frac{A_1}{B_1} = \sin a_1, \frac{B_2}{B_1} = \cos a_1, \frac{A_3}{B_2} = \sin a_3, \frac{B_3}{B_2} = \cos a_3, and so$ on. Such a selection is possible for, if $\frac{h_1}{h_1} = \sin a_1$, and $\frac{3_1}{m_1} = \cos a_1$, then $A_1 + B_1 = b_1$ or $b_1 = \sqrt{A_1} + B_1$, since sin a1 + cos a1 = 1, and since

$$\left(\frac{A_1}{\sqrt{A_1} + B_1}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{B_1}{\sqrt{A_1} + B_1}\right)^2 = 1,$$

where one of these numbers may be taken as the sin a_1 and the sother as $\cos a_1$. Similarly for $\frac{A_2}{\sqrt{A_2^2 + B_2^2}}$, $\frac{B_2}{\sqrt{A_2^2 + B_2^2}}$, $\frac{B_2}{\sqrt{A_2^2 + B_2^2}}$,
and so on. Equation (9) can now be written
 $y = k_1 e^{\alpha_1 x} (\sin a_1 \cos \beta_1 x + \cos a_1 \sin \beta_1 x) + k_2 e^{\alpha_2 x} (\sin a_2 \cos \beta_2 x + \cos a_2 \sin \beta_2 x) + \dots + k_2 e^{\alpha_2 x} (\sin a_2 \cos \beta_2 x + \cos a_2 \sin \beta_2 x) + \dots + k_2 e^{\alpha_1 x} (\sin a_2 \cos \beta_2 x + \cos a_2 \sin \beta_2 x)$
(10) $y = k_1 e^{\alpha_1 x} \sin (\beta_1 x + a_1) + k_2 e^{\alpha_2 x} \sin (\beta_2 x + a_2) + \dots + k_2 e^{\alpha_2 x} \sin (\beta_2 x + a_2)$

where k_1 , k_2 , ----- $k_{\frac{n}{2}}$ and a_1 , a_2 , ----- $a_{\frac{n}{2}}$ are arbitrary constants.

To illustrate the use of formulas (9) and (10) solve

$$3 \frac{dy}{dx} - 2 \frac{dy}{dx} + y = 0$$

The auxiliary equation is

$$3 m^{2} - 2m + 1 = 0$$

$$m = \frac{2 \pm \sqrt{4 - 12}}{6} = \frac{1 \pm \sqrt{2} i}{3}$$

Substituting in (9)

$$y = e_{3}^{X}(A_{1} \cos \frac{12}{3}x + B_{1} \sin \frac{12}{3})$$

Substituting in (10)

$$y = k_1 e^{\frac{x}{3}} sin (\frac{2}{3}x + a_1)$$

12. Roots of Auxiliary Equation Multiple. - If equation (6) has a double root m_1 , and if the theorem on page 5 holds in this case, the general solution of (1a) will be

$$y = c_1 e^{m_1 x} + c_2 e^{m_1 x} + c_3 e^{m_3 x} + \dots + c_n e^{m_n x}$$
$$y = e^{m_1 x} (c_1 + c_2) + c_3 e^{m_3 x} + \dots + c_n e^{m_n x}.$$

 $c_1 + c_2$ is equivalent to a single constant, and consequently only n-1 independent arbitrary constants are involved. This is not the most general solution for n such constants are necessary.

Suppose, that one of the roots $m_2 = m_1 + h$ where h is a small finite quantity. Then

(11) $y = c_1 e^{m_1 x} + c_2 e^{(m_1 + h)x} + c_3 e^{m_3 x} + \dots + c_n e^{m_n x}$

by the theorem on page 5. Equation (11) can be written

(12)
$$y = e^{m_1 x} (c_1 + c_2 e^{hx}) + c_3 e^{m_3 x} + \dots + c_n e^{m_n x}$$

Expanding e^{hx} by the exponential series formula

Substituting in (9)

$$y = \frac{3}{3}(x_1 \cos \frac{3}{3}x + 3_1 \sin \frac{3}{3})$$

Substituting in (10)

$$y = x_1 a_2^2 a_1 n \left(\frac{1}{2} x + n_1\right)$$

12. Hoots of Auxiliary Mquation Multiple. - If equation (6) has a double root m1, and if the theorem on page 5 holds in this case, the general solution of (1a) will be

$$y = c_{1}e^{m_{1}x} + c_{2}e^{m_{2}x} + c_{3}e^{m_{3}x} + \dots + c_{n}e^{m_{n}x}$$

$$y = e^{m_{1}x}(c_{1} + c_{2}) + c_{3}e^{m_{3}x} + \dots + c_{n}e^{m_{n}x}$$

 $o_1 + c_2$ is equivalent to a single constant, and consequently only n-1 independent arbitrary constants are involved. This is not the most general solution for n such constants are necessary.

Suppose, that one of the roots mg = m1 + h where h is a small finite quantity. Then

(11) $y = c_1 e^{m_1 x} + c_2 e^{(m_1 + h)x} + c_3 e^{m_3 x} + \dots + c_n e^{m_n x}$

by the theorem on page 5. Equation (11) can be written

(12) $y = e^{m_1 x} (c_1 + c_2 e^{hx}) + c_3 e^{m_3 x} + \dots + c_n e^{m_n x}$ Expanding e^{hx} by the exponential series formula

1.0

$$e^{hx} = 1 + hx + \frac{h^2x^2}{2!} + \frac{h^3x^3}{3!} + \dots$$

Substituting this value in equation (12)

$$y = e^{m_{1}x} \left[c_{1} + c_{2}(1 + hx + \frac{h^{2}x^{2}}{2!} + \frac{h^{3}x^{3}}{3!} + \dots) \right]$$
$$+ c_{3}e^{m_{3}x} + \dots + c_{n}e^{m_{n}x}$$
$$+ c_{3}e^{m_{3}x} + \dots + c_{n}e^{m_{n}x}$$
$$+ c_{3}e^{m_{3}x} + \dots + c_{n}e^{m_{n}x}$$

As the quantities c_1 and c_2 are arbitrary constants we may choose $c_2 = \frac{B}{h}$ where B is any constant. As h approaches zero c_2h will always equal B and c_2 will become infinitely large. Now if $c_1 + c_2$ is to be an arbitrary constant A, since $c_1 =$ $A - c_2$, c_1 must be chosen infinitely large and negative. Let h approach zero in equation (13) and substitute A for $c_1 + c_2$ and B for c_2h . Then

(14) $y = e^{m_1 x} (A + Bx) + c_3 e^{m_3 x} + \dots + c_n e^{m_n x}$

is the general solution of (la).

Suppose next that three roots m_1 , m_2 , m_3 of equation (6) are equal. From equation (14) if $m_1 = m_2$

(15) $y = e^{m_1 X} (A + Bx) + c_3 e^{m_3 X} + \dots + c_n e^{m_n X}$

$$e^{3x} = 1 + bx + \frac{x^2 x^3}{2} + \frac{x^3 x^3}{3} + \frac{x^3 x^3}{2} + \dots$$
Substituting this value is equation (12)

$$v = e^{5x} \left[c_1 + c_2 (1 + bx + \frac{b^3 x^3}{2!} + \frac{b^3 x^3}{3!} + \frac{b^3 x^3}{2!} + \dots + c_x e^{5x} \right]$$

$$+ c_3 e^{5x} + \dots + c_x e^{5x} + \dots + c_x e^{5x} + \dots + c_x e^{5x}$$

As the quantities c_1 and c_2 are arbitrary constants we may choose $c_2 = \frac{3}{h}$ where 3 is any constant. As h approaches zero c_2h will always equal 5 and c_3 will become infinitely large. For if $c_1 + c_3$ is to be an arbitrary constant A, since $c_1 =$ $1 - c_3$, c_1 such be chosen infinitely large and negative. Let h approach zero in equation (13) and substitute A for $c_1 + c_3$ and 3 for e_3h . Then

(1%) $y = e^{in_1 x} (x + 3x) + c_3 e^{in_3 x} + \dots + c_n e^{in_n x}$

is the general solution of (la).

Suppose next that three roots m1, m2, m3 of equation (6) are equal. From aquation (14) if m1 = m2

(15) $v = e^{\pi_1 x} (x + 3\pi) + c_3 e^{\pi_3 x} + \dots + c_n e^{\pi_n x}$

1.1

Let $m_3 = m_1 + h$. Then substituting in (15)

$$y = e^{m_1 x} (A + Bx) + c_3 e^{(m_1 + h)x} + ---- + c_n e^{m_n x}$$

$$y = e^{m_1 x} [(A + Bx) + c_3 e^{hx}] + c_4 e^{m_4 x} + ---- + c_n e^{m_n x}$$

Expanding ehx by the exponential series formula

$$y = e^{m_1 x} \left[(A + Bx) + c_3 + c_3 hx + c_3 \frac{h^2 x}{2!} + c_3 \frac{h^3 x}{3!} + \dots \right]$$
$$+ c_4 e^{m_4 x} + \dots + c_n e^{m_n x}$$
$$16) \quad y = e^{m_1 x} \left[(A + c_3) + (B + c_3 h)x + c_3 \frac{h^2 x}{2!} + c_3 \frac{h^3 x}{3!} \right]$$

+ ----- +
$$c_4 e^{m_4 x}$$
 + ----- + $c_n e^{m_n x}$

As in the preceding case, choose $c_3 = \frac{A_3}{h^2}$ where A_3 is any constant. As h approaches zero c_3 will always equal A_3 but c_3h and c_3 will become infinitely large. If $B + c_3h$ is to be an arbitrary constant A_2 , since $B = A_2 - c_3h$, B must be chosen infinitely large and negative. If $A + c_3$ is to be an arbitrary constant A_1 , since $A = A_1 - c_3$, A must be chosen infinitely large and negative. Let h approach zero in (16), and substitute A_1 for $(A + c_3)$. A_2 for $B + c_3h$, and A_3 for c_3h^2 . Then

 $y = e^{m_1 x} (A_1 + A_2 x + A_3 x^2) + c_4 e^{m_4 x} + \dots + c_n e^{m_n x}$ will be the general solution of (1a).

Lot mg = mg + h. Then substituting in (15) $y = e^{i t_1 x} (x + 3x) + c_2 e^{(i t_1 + 1)x} + \dots + c_n e^{i t_n x}$ $y = e^{n_1 x} \left[(A + Bx) + c_3 e^{hx} \right] + c_4 e^{n_4 x} + \dots + c_n e^{n_n x}$ $y = e^{2ix} \left[(x + 3x) + o_3 + o_3ix + o_3 \frac{b x}{21} + c_3 \frac{b x}{21} + c_3 - \frac{b x}{21} + c_4 \right]$ + casher + ---- + casher + (15) $r = e^{\ln 1^{26}} \left[(A + c_3) + (3 + c_3 h) x + c_3 \frac{h x}{21} + c_3 \frac{h x}{21} \right]$ + ----- + C40^{m4/2} + ----- + Cne^{m2}

As in the preceding case, choose $c_3 \stackrel{n}{\longrightarrow} \frac{2}{h^2}$ where k_3 is any constant. As h approaches zero c_3 will always equal k_3 but c_3 h and c_3 will become infinitely large. If $3 + c_3$ h is to be an arbitrary constant k_3 , clace $3 = k_3 - c_3h$, 3 and be closen infinitely large and negative. If $4 + c_3$ is to be an arbitrary constant k_1 , since $k = k_1 - c_3$, A must be chosen infinitely large and negative. Let h opproach zero in (16), and existints k_1 for $(k + c_3)$, k_3 for $3 + c_3h$, and k_3 for c_3h . Then

y = e¹¹(A, + A₂x + A₃x) + c.e^{mex} + + c.e^{mex}

will be the general solution of (la).

By a similar line of reasoning it can be shown that if r roots of (5) are equal, the general solution of (1a) will be

(17)
$$y = e^{m_1 x} (A_1 + A_2 x + A_3 x^2 + \dots + A_r x^{r-1}) + c_{r+1} e^{m_r + 1x} + \dots + c_n e^{m_n x}$$

Thus the difference that an r fold root m_1 produces is that the coefficient of the exponential $e^{m_1 x}$ is no longer an arbitrary constant, but a polynomial of the $(r-1)^{st}$ degree of the form

 $A_1 + A_2 x + A_3 x^2 + ---- + A_r x$

involving r arbitrary constants.

As an illustration of the application of (17) consider the solution of

$$2\frac{d^{3}y}{dx} + 4\frac{d^{2}y}{dx} - 5\frac{dy}{dx} - 2 = 0$$

The auxiliary equation is

 $12 m^{3} + 4 m^{2} - 5 m - 2 = 0$ $m = -\frac{1}{2}, m = -\frac{1}{2}, m = \frac{2}{3}$

From equation (17)

$$y = e^{-\frac{1}{2}x} (A_1 + A_2 x) + c_3 e^{\frac{3}{2}x}$$

By a similar line of reasoning it can be shown that if r roots of (65) are equal, the general solution of (1a) will be

 $(17) y = e^{2t} (A_1 + A_2 x + A_3 x^2 + \dots + A_n x^{n-1}) + \cdots$ cr+1^s + ---- + c_ne^mn^x

Thus the difference that an r fold root m, produces is that the coefficient of the exponential e^{max} is no longer an arbitrary constant, but a polynomial of the (r-1)st degree of the form

involving r arbitrary constants.

As an illustration of the application of (17) consider the solution of

$$12 \frac{d}{dx}^{3} + 4 \frac{d}{dx}^{2} - 5 \frac{dy}{dx} - 2 = 0$$

The auxiliary equation is

$$12 m^{3} + 4 m^{2} - 5 m - 2 = 0$$

 $m = -\frac{1}{2}, m = -\frac{1}{2}, m = \frac{3}{3}$

From equation (17)

$$y = e^{-\frac{1}{2}x} (A_1 + A_2x) + c_3 e^{\frac{3}{2}x}$$

If the multiple root is complex imaginary, its conjugate will also be multiple of the same order. Suppose m_1 and m_2 of equation (6) are equal and complex imaginary of the form $\alpha + \beta_1$, and let m_3 and m_4 be the roots that are the conjugates of m_1 and m_2 . These roots then will be of the form $\alpha - \beta_1$. By equation (17)

$$y = e^{(\alpha_{1} + \beta_{1}i)x} (A_{1} + A_{2}x) + e^{(\alpha_{1} - \beta_{1}i)x} (B_{1} + B_{2}x) + c_{5}e^{m_{5}x} + \dots + c_{n}e^{m_{n}x}$$

This expression may be written

$$y = e^{\alpha_1 x} \cdot e^{\beta_1 x} (A_1 + A_2 x) + e^{\alpha_1 x} \cdot e^{\beta_1 x} (B_1 + B_2 x)$$

$$c_5e^{m_5x} + \dots + c_ne^{m_nx}$$

18)
$$y = e^{\alpha_1 x} \left[e^{\prod_{i=1}^{n} (A_1 + A_2 x)} + e^{\prod_{i=1}^{n} (B_1 + B_2 x)} \right]$$

 $c_5 e^{m_5 x} + \dots + c_n e^{m_n x}$

Substituting the trigonometric forms for $e^{\beta_1 i x}$ and $e^{-\beta_1 i x}$ in (18)

$$y = e^{\alpha_{1}x} \left[(\cos \beta_{1}x + i \sin \beta_{1}x)(A_{1} + A_{2}x) + (\cos \beta_{1}x - i \sin \beta_{1}x)(B_{1} + B_{2}x) \right] + c_{5}e^{m_{5}x} + \dots + c_{n}e^{m_{n}x}$$

$$19) y = e^{\alpha_{1}x} \left[(A_{1} + B_{1} + A_{2}x + B_{2}x) \cos \beta_{1}x + i(A_{1} - B_{1} + A_{2}x - B_{2}x) \sin \beta_{1}x \right] + c_{5}e^{m_{5}x} + \dots + c_{n}e^{m_{n}x}$$

If the multiple root is complex imaginary, its conjugate will also be multiple of the same order. Suppose m_1 and m_2 of equation (6) are equal and complex imaginary of the form $n + \beta_1$, and let m_2 and m_4 be the roots that are the conjugates of m_1 and m_2 . These roots then will be of the form $m_2 - \beta_1$. By equation (17)

 $y = e^{(e_1 + e_1 1)x} (A_1 + A_2 x) + e^{(e_1 - e_1 1)x} (B_1 + B_2 x)$

+ cse^{msx} + ---- + cs^mn^x

This expression may be written

 $y = e^{\alpha_1 x} \cdot e^{21x} (A_1 + A_2 x) + e^{\alpha_1 x} \cdot e^{21x} (B_1 + B_2 x)$

 $c_{\alpha}e^{m_{n}x}$ + ---- + $c_{n}e^{m_{n}x}$

(18) $y = e^{\alpha_1 x} \left[e^{\alpha_1 x} (\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 x) + e^{-\alpha_1^2 x} (B_1 + B_2 x) \right] + e^{\alpha_1^2 x} e^{\alpha_1 x} e^$

Substituting the trigonometric forms for e diff and e diin

 $y = e^{\alpha_1 x} (\cos \beta_1 x + i \sin \beta_1 x) (A_1 + A_3 x) + (\cos \beta_1 x - i x) (A_1 + A_3 x) + (\cos \beta_1 x - i x) (A_1 + A_3 x) + (\cos \beta_1 x - i x) (A_1 + A_3 x) + (\cos \beta_1 x - i x) (A_1 + A_3 x) (A_1 + A_3 x) + (\cos \beta_1 x - i x) (A_1 + A_3 x)$ 1 sin/1x)(31 + 32x) + 036 + ---- + 086 $(19) \ y = e^{-x_1 x} \left[(A_1 + B_1 + A_2 x + B_3 x) \cos \beta_1 x + i(A_1 - B_1 + A_2 x - B_3 x) \right]$ sin Dax + 'cse^{mex} + ---- + one^{mnx}
Let
$$A_1 + B_1 = A_1'$$
, $A_2 + B_2 = A_2'$, $i(A_1 - B_1) = A_1''$,

 $i(A_2 - B_2) = A_2$ ". Substituting in (19)

$$y = e^{\alpha_{1}x} \left[(A_{1}' + A_{2}'x) \cos \beta_{1}x + (A_{1}'' + A_{2}''x) \sin \beta_{1}x \right] + c_{5}e^{m_{5}x} + \dots + c_{n}e^{m_{n}x}$$

will be the general solution of (la).

Similarly it can be shown that if a complex imaginary root is r fold, the general solution of (la) will be

(20)
$$y = e^{\alpha_1 x} \left[(A_1! + A_2! x + A_3! x^2 + \dots + A_r! x^{r-1}) \cos \beta_1 x + (A_1! + A_2! x + A_3! x^2 + \dots + A_r! x^{r-1}) \sin \beta_1 x \right] + c_{2r+1} e^{m_2 r + 1^x} + \dots + c_n e^{m_n x}$$

Another form of this result may be obtained as follows:writing equation (20) in its expanded form and grouping

(21)
$$y = e^{\alpha_1 x} \left[(A_1' \cos \beta_1 x + A_1'' \sin \beta_1 x) + x (A_2' \cos \beta_1 x + A_2'' \sin \beta_1 x) + \dots + x^{r-1} (A_r' \cos \beta_1 x + A_r'' \sin \beta_1 x) \right] + A_2'' \sin \beta_1 x + \dots + x^{r-1} (A_r' \cos \beta_1 x + A_r'' \sin \beta_1 x) + \dots + c_{2r+1}e^{m_2 r+1 x} + \dots + c_n e^{m_n x}$$

Multiply and divide the first group within the bracket by k_1 , the second group by k_2 , and so on, the k's so chosen that $\frac{A_1'}{k_1} = \sin a_1, \frac{A_2'}{k_2} = \sin a_2, \frac{A_2''}{k_2} = \cos a_2$, and similarly for $\frac{A_1''}{k_1} = \cos a_2$, and similarly for

The
$$A_1 + B_2 + A_1^2$$
, $A_2 + B_3 + A_3^2$, $(A_1 - B_2) = A_2^2$,
 $(A_2 - B_3) + A_3^2$, $(A_3 + B_4 + 1) \cos A_1^2 + (A_1^2 + A_3^2) + A_3^2$,
 $A_1(A_2 - B_3) + A_3^2$, $(A_2^2 + A_3^2 + (A_1^2 + A_3^2) + A_3^2)$,
 $A_1(A_1)$ be the senset colution of (A_2) .
And the the senset colution of (A_3) .
 $A_1(A_2 - A_3) + A_3^2$, $(A_1 + A_3 + A_3) + A_3^2$, $(A_1 + A_3 + A_3) + A_3^2$,
 $(A_2) + A_3^2 + A_3^$

the other A's and k's. Substituting in (21)

(22)
$$y = e^{x_1 x} \left[k_1 \sin (p_1 x + a_1) + k_2 x \sin (p_1 x + a_2) + \dots + k_r x^{r-1} \sin (p_1 x + a_r) \right] + c_{2r+1} e^{m_2 r + 1 x} + \dots + c_n e^{m_n x}$$

To illustrate the application of (20) and (22) consider the solution of

 $\frac{d^{4}y}{dx} + 2 \frac{d^{3}y}{dx} + 3 \frac{d^{2}y}{dx} + 2 \frac{dy}{dx} + 1 = 0$

The auxiliary equation is $m^{4} + 2m^{3} + 3m^{2} + 2m + 1 = 0$ $m = \frac{-1 \pm \sqrt{3} i}{2}, m = \frac{-1 \pm \sqrt{3} i}{2}$

From equation (20)

$$y = e^{-\frac{1}{2}x} \left[(A_1' + A_2'x) \cos \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}x + (A_1'' + A_2''x) \sin \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}x \right]$$

From equation (22)

$$y = e^{-\frac{1}{2}x} \left[k_1 \sin \left(\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} x + a_1 \right) + k_2 x \sin \left(\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} x + a_2 \right) \right]$$

NON-HOMOGENEOUS LINEAR DIFFERENTIAL EQUATIONS

13. <u>General Theorem</u>. - The general form of the non-homogeneous linear differential equation is

(1)
$$X_0 \frac{d^n y}{dx^n} + X_1 \frac{d^{n-1} y}{dx^{n-1}} + \dots + X_n y = X$$

the other A's and E's. Substituting in (21)

(22)
$$y = e^{-1x} \left[k_1 \sin (e_1 x + a_1) + k_2 x \sin (a_1 x + a_2) + \dots + k_p x + a_p \right] + k_p x + a_p \right] + k_p x + a_p \right] + k_p x + a_p x + a_p$$

To illustrate the application of (20) and (22) consider he solution of

$$\frac{d^{2}}{dx} + 2^{2} \frac{d^{2}}{dx} + 3 \frac{d^{2}}{dx} + 2^{2} \frac{d^{2}}{dx} + 1 = 0$$

dx dx dx

The auxiliary equation is $m^4 + 2m^2 + 3m^2 + 2m + 1 = 0$

+ cne

$$m = -1 \pm \sqrt{3} 1$$
, $m = -1 \pm \sqrt{3} 1$

From equation (20)

$$= e^{-\frac{1}{2}x} \left[(4_1^{1} + 4_2^{1}x) \cos \frac{1}{2}x + (4_1^{11} + 4_2^{11}x) \sin \frac{1}{2}x \right]$$

$$= e^{-\frac{1}{2}x} \left[(4_1^{1} + 4_2^{11}x) \cos \frac{1}{2}x + (4_1^{11} + 4_2^{11}x) \sin \frac{1}{2}x \right]$$

Ton equation (22)

$$y = e^{-\frac{\pi}{2}x} \left[x_1 \sin \left(\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}x + a_1 \right) + x_2 x \sin \left(\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}x + a_2 \right) \right]$$

NON-HOMOGENHOUS LINHAN DIFFERENTIAL REQUISIONS 13. Constal Theorem. - The general form of the non-homogeneous linear differential equation is n ______

(1) $\mathbb{X}_{0} \frac{d^{n}y}{dx^{n}} + \mathbb{X}_{1} \frac{d^{n-1}y}{dx^{n-1}} + \dots + \mathbb{X}_{n}y = \mathbb{X}$

3.6

where X_0 , X_1 , ----- X_n and X are functions of x or constants. When the right hand member of this equation is zero, it has been shown that $Y \equiv y = c_1y_1 + c_2y_2 + ---- c_ny_n$ is the general solution, and for convenience Y will be referred to as the complementary function of (1). If y_p is a particular integral of (1), then

(2)
$$X_0 \frac{d^n y_{\beta}}{dx} + X_1 \frac{d^{n-1} y_{\beta}}{dx^{n-1}} + \dots + X_n y_{\beta} \equiv X,$$

and since Y is the general solution of (1) when the right hand member is zero, then

(3)
$$X_0 \frac{d^n Y}{dx} + X_1 \frac{d^{n-1} Y}{dx} + \dots + X_n Y \equiv 0$$

Adding the identities (2) and (3)

dx'

(4)
$$X_0 \frac{d^n y_0}{dx^m} + X_1 \frac{d^{n-1} y_0}{dx^{n-1}} + \dots + X_n y_0 + X_0 \frac{d^n y}{dx^n} + \frac{x_1 \frac{d^{n-1} y_0}{dx^n}}{x_1 \frac{d^{n-1} y_0}{dx^{n-1}} + \dots + x_n y \equiv x$$

This is the condition that $Y + y_{\beta}$ is a solution of (1), and since the complementary function contains, independent arbitrary constants, it is the general solution. Hence the theorem:- The general integral of a non-homogeneous linear differential equation is the sum of its complementary function and any particular integral.

14. Symbolic Operator (D-m). - If the coefficients

where X_0 , X_1 , ----- X_n and X are functions of x or constants. When the right hand member of this equation is zero, it has been shown that $T \equiv y = c_1 y_1 + c_2 y_3 + ---- c_n y_n$ is the general solution, and for convenience Y will be referred to as the complementary function of (1). If y_p is a particular integral of (1), then

(2)
$$X_0 \frac{d^n y_0}{dx^n} + X_1 \frac{d^n y_0}{dx^{n-1}} + \dots + X_n y_0 \in X,$$

and since Y is the general solution of (1) when the right hand member is zero, then

(3)
$$X_0 \frac{a^n Y}{a x} + X_1 \frac{a^{n-1}}{a x^{n-1}} + \dots + X_n Y \equiv 0$$

(E) bas (E) saitites (E) and (3)

(4)
$$x_0 \frac{d}{dx} \frac{n}{2} + x_1 \frac{d}{dx} \frac{n-1}{2} + \dots + x_n x_n + x_0 \frac{d}{dx} \frac{n}{2} + \dots + x_n x_n x$$

This is the condition that Y + yp is a solution of (1), and since the complementary function contains, independent arbitrary constants, it is the general solution. Hence the theorem:- The general integral of a non-homogeneous linear differential equation is the sum of its complementary function and any particular integral.

14. Symbolic Operator (D-m). - If the coefficients

TE

 X_0, X_1, \dots, X_n in equation (1) are constants, it can be written

(1a)
$$k_0 \frac{d y}{dx} + k_1 \frac{d y}{dx} + \dots + k_n y = X,$$

and if we write $\frac{dy}{dx} = Dy; \quad \frac{dy}{dx} = D^2y, \quad \dots \quad \frac{d^ny}{dx^n} = D^ny,$

equation (la) becomes

(2)
$$(k_0 D^n + k_1 D^{n-1} + \dots + k_n)y = X$$

in which the polynomial $k_0D^n + k_1D^{n-1} + \dots + k_n$ is a rational integral function of the nth degree by definition, and represents symbolically the differential operator

$$k_0 \frac{d^n}{dx^n} + k_1 \frac{d^{n-1}}{dx^{n-1}} + \dots + k_n.$$

integrad Since any rational, function of the nth degree with constant coefficients can be written as the product of n linear factors, some alike, all alike, or all distinct, equation (2) becomes symbolically

 $k_{0}(D-m_{1})(D-m_{2}) ----- (D-m_{n})y = X$ By definition of the operator D, (D-m)y means $\frac{dy}{dx} - my$ and (D-n)y means $\frac{dy}{dx} - ny$. The product (D-m)(D-n)y means $(\frac{d}{dx} - m)$ $(\frac{dy}{dx} - ny)$ which equals $\frac{d^{2}y}{dx^{2}} - (m + n) \frac{dy}{dx} + mny$. Symbolically $(3) (D-m)(D-n)y = [D^{2} - (m+n) D + mn]y$ No. N1. ---- Nn in equation (1) are constants, it can be written

(1a) $k_0 \frac{a}{dx}^n + k_1 \frac{a^{n-1}}{dx}^n + \dots + k_n y = x,$

and if we write
$$\frac{dy}{dx} = Dy; \frac{d}{dx} = D^2y, \dots, \frac{d^Ny}{dx} = D^Ny$$

equation (1a) becomes

(2)
$$(4c_0 D^n + 4c_1 D^{n-1} + \dots + 4c_n) y = x$$

in which the polynomial $k_0 D^n + k_1 D^{n-1} + \dots + k_n$ is a rational integral function of the nth degree by definition. and represents symbolically the differential operator

$$\frac{n}{dn} + k_1 \frac{d}{dn} + k_2 \frac{n}{dn} + \dots + k_n$$

Since any rational, function of the nth degree with constant coefficients can be written as the product of n linear factors, some alike, all alike, or all distinct, equation (2) becomes symbolically

$$i_{0}(D-m_{1})(D-m_{2}) = \cdots = (D-m_{n})y = X$$

By definition of the operator D, (D-m)y means $\frac{dy}{dx} - my$ and
(D-n)y means $\frac{dy}{dx} - ny$. The product (D-m)(D-n)y means $(\frac{d}{dx} - \frac{d}{dx} - \frac{d}{dx} - \frac{d}{dx} - \frac{d}{dx} - \frac{d}{dx} - \frac{d}{dx} + \frac{d}{dx} - \frac{d}{dx} + \frac{d}{dx} - \frac{d}{dx} + \frac{d}{dx} - \frac{d}{dx} + \frac{d}{dx$

1.

That is, the result of operating on y with (D-n) first and then with (D-m) on the result is the same as operating on y with $\begin{bmatrix} D^2 - (m+n) & D + mn \end{bmatrix}$. Moreover, owing to the symmetry of m and n in the right hand member of (3), we see that the order of the operators on the left is not essential. Hence the symbolic representatives of operators of the type here considered behave like algebraic quantities for multiplication; and furthermore, it is obvious that this conclusion will hold regardless of the number of operators involved.

15. <u>Operator Method for Particular Integral</u>. -Suppose we have an equation of the third order, and that it has been divided through by k₀. Symbolically it can be written

(1) $(D-m_1)(D-m_2)(D-m_3)y = X$ Let $(D-m_2)(D-m_3)y = u$, where u is a new function. Then $(D-m_1)u = X$ or $\frac{du}{dx} - m_1u = X$. This is a linear equation of the first order and e^{-m_1X} is an integrating factor. Hence

$$e^{-m_1 x} \left(\frac{du}{dx} - m_1 u \right) = e^{-m_1 x} x$$

Integrating

$$e^{-m_1 x}$$
 $u = \int e^{-m_1 x} X dx + c$
 $u = e^{m_1 x} \int e^{-m_1 x} X dx + c e^{m_1 x}$ or
 $(D-m_2)(D-m_3)y = e^{m_1 x} \int e^{-m_1 x} X dx + c e^{m_1 x}$

That is, the result of operating on y with (D-n) first and then with (D-n) on the result is the same as operating on y with $\begin{bmatrix} D^2 & -(m+n) & D+mn \end{bmatrix}$. Moreover, owing to the symmetry of m and n in the right hand member of (3), we see that the order of the operators on the left is not essential. Hence the symbolic representatives of operators of the type here considered behave like algebraic quantities for multiplication; and furthermore, it is obvious that this conclusion will hold regardless of the number of operators involved.

15. Operator Method for Particular Interral. -Suppose we have an equation of the third order, and that it has been divided through by 20. Syncolically it can be written

(1) $(D-m_1)(D-m_2)(D-m_3)y = X$ Let $(D-m_2)(D-m_3)y = u$, where u is a new function. Then $(D-m_1)u = X$ or $\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} - m_1 u = X$. This is a linear equation of the first order and e is an integrating factor. Hence

$$e^{-m_1 x} \left(\frac{du}{dx} - m_1 u \right) = e^{-m_1 x}$$

Integrating

$$e^{-m_1 x} u = \int e^{-m_1 x} X dx + c e^{m_1 x}$$
$$u = e^{\frac{m_1 x}{2}} e^{-m_1 x} X dx + c e^{m_1 x}$$
or
$$(2-m_2) (2-m_3) y = e^{\frac{m_1 x}{2}} e^{-m_1 x} X dx + c e^{m_1 x}$$

2.0

Let $(D-m_3)y = v$. Then

•

$$(D-m_2)v = e^{m_1x} \int e^{-m_1x} X dx + c e^{m_1x}$$

This is a linear equation of the first order and e^{-m₂x} is an integrating factor. Therefore

$$\int ce^{(m_1-m_2)x} dx = \frac{c}{m_1-m_2} e^{(m_1-m_2)x}$$

Let
$$\frac{c}{m_1-m_2} = c^n$$
. Substituting in (2)
 $v = e^{m_2 X} \int e^{(m_1-m_2)X} \int e^{-m_1 X} X dx dx + e^{m_2 X} (m_1-m_2)X + c^1 e^{m_2 X}$
 $v = e^{m_2 X} \int e^{(m_1-m_2)X} \int e^{-m_1 X} X dx dx + c^n e^{m_1 X} + c^1 e^{m_2 X}$ or
 $(D-m_3)y = e^{m_2 X} \int e^{(m_1-m_2)X} \int e^{-m_1 X} X dx dx + c^n e^{m_1 X} + c^1 e^{m_2 X}$
This is a linear equation of the first order and $e^{-m_3 X}$ is an
integrating factor, so

$$ye^{-m_{3}x} = \int \left[e^{(m_{2}-m_{3})x} \int e^{(m_{1}-m_{2})x} \int e^{-m_{1}x} x \, dx \, dx + c^{"}e^{(m_{1}-m_{3})x} \right] \\ + c^{"}e^{(m_{2}-m_{3})x} \int dx + c_{3} \\ y = e^{m_{3}x} \int e^{(m_{2}-m_{3})x} \int e^{(m_{1}-m_{2})x} \int e^{-m_{1}x} x \, dx \, dx \, dx + \frac{c^{"}}{m_{1}-m_{3}} e^{m_{1}x} \\ + \frac{c^{"}}{m_{2}-m_{3}} e^{m_{2}x} + c_{3}e^{m_{3}x}$$

bet
$$(1-m_{0})y = v$$
. Then
 $(2-m_{0})y = v^{2}\lambda'_{0}e^{-m_{0}\lambda'}$ with $+e^{-m_{0}\lambda'}$
This is a linear equation of the first order and $e^{-m_{0}\lambda'}$ is a
 $(2-m_{0})x = (e^{-m_{0}\lambda'})e^{-m_{0}\lambda'}$ with $+e^{-m_{0}\lambda'}e$

.

Let
$$\frac{c^{"}}{m_1 - m_3} = c_1$$
, $\frac{c^{"}}{m_2 - m_3} = c_2$. Then
 $y = e^{m_3 x} \int e^{(m_2 - m_3)x} \int e^{(m_1 - m_2)x} \int e^{-m_1 x} x dx dx dx + c_1 e^{m_1 x} + c_2 e^{m_2 x} + c_2 e^{m_3 x}$

is the general solution of (1).

Using the same argument it can be seen that for the nth order equation, the general solution will be

(3)
$$y = e^{m_n x} \int e^{(m_{n-1}-m_n)x} \int \dots \int e^{(m_1-m_2)x} \int e^{-m_1 x} X(dx)^n + c_1 e^{m_1 x} + c_2 e^{m_2 x} + \dots + c_n e^{m_n x}$$

in which the first line is the particular integral and the second line the complementary function.

The application of (3) is illustrated by the solution of

$$\frac{d}{dx} - 3 \frac{d}{dx} + 2 \frac{dy}{dx} = e^{x}$$

The auxiliary equation is

 $m^{3} - 3m^{2} + 2m = 0$

which has for its first roots

 $m_1 = 2, m_2 = 1, m_3 = 0$

The complementary function is

$$Y = c_1 e^{2X} + c_2 e^{X} + c_3$$

Substituting in (3)

$$y = e^{0x} \int e^{(1-0)x} \int e^{(2-1)x} \int e^{-2x} dx dx dx + Y$$
$$= \int e^{x} \int e^{x} \int e^{-x} dx dx dx + Y$$

Let
$$\frac{c^n}{m_1-m_2} = c_1$$
, $\frac{c^1}{m_2-m_3} = c_2$. Then

$$y = e^{\max} e^{(m_3-m_3)x} e^{(u_1-m_3)x} e^{-m_1x} X dx dx dx + c_1 e^{u_1x} + c$$

is the general solution of (1).

Using the same argument it can be seen that for the n order equation, the general solution will be

(3)
$$y = e^{in_{n}x} \int_{0}^{0} (in_{n-1} - in_{n})^{x} \int_{----}^{----} \int_{0}^{0} (in_{1} - in_{2})^{x} \int_{0}^{---1^{x}} X(dx)^{n}$$

+ $o_{2}e^{in_{2}x} + o_{3}e^{in_{2}x} + ---- + c_{n}o^{in_{n}x}$

in which the first line is the particular integral and the second line the complementary function.

The application of (3) is illustrated by the solution of

Y + 1

$$= \int e^{X} \int e^{X} \left[-e^{-X} dx dx \right] + Y$$

$$= -\int e^{X} \int e^{X} e^{-X} dx dx + Y$$

$$= -\int e^{X} \int dx dx + Y$$

$$= -\int e^{X} dx dx + Y$$

$$= -e^{X} (x-1) + Y$$
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$$= e^{X} (1-x) + c_{1}e^{2X} + c_{2}e^{X} + c_{3}$$

In the process of integration the constants can be ignored since they give rise only to the terms of the complementary function.

16. <u>Variation of Parameters</u>. - This method of obtaining the particular integral is readily applied, especially if the order of the equation is not high. It consists in considering the constants in the complementary function as undetermined functions of x such that when it is substituted in the given equation we get X, and not zero, as we do when they are constants. Since we have n functions at our disposal and only one condition to impose upon them, we may choose (n-1) other conditions as we please.

Suppose we have a third order equation

(1)
$$k_0 \frac{d^3y}{dx} + k_1 \frac{d^3y}{dx} + k_2 \frac{dy}{dx} + k_3y = X$$

the auxiliary equation of which has distinct roots. Then the complementary function is

(2) $Y = c_1 e^{m_1 X} + c_2 e^{m_2 X} + c_3 e^{m_3 X}$

= / e / e [- e dydy] + Y Y + x5xbx-e.xe)xe)- = = - (e f' dr. dr. + T Y + zb z^xo) - = = - e^X(x-1) + Y Pierce - 102 $y = e^{X}(1-x) + c_1e^{2X} + c_2e^{X} + c_3$

In the process of integration the constants can be ignored since they give rise only to the terms of the complementary function.

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Suppose we have a third order equation

(1) $k_0 \frac{d}{dx} + k_1 \frac{d}{dx} + k_2 \frac{dy}{dx} + k_3y = X$ the auxiliary equation of which has distinct roots. Then tha complementary function is (2) $Y = c_1 e^{m_1 x} + c_3 e^{m_2 x} + c_3 e^{m_3 x}$

Differentiating (2)

$$\frac{dY}{dx} = c_1 m_1 e^{m_1 x} + c_2 m_2 e^{m_2 x} + c_3 m_3 e^{m_3 x} + e^{m_1 x} \frac{dc_1}{dx} + e^{m_2 x} \frac{dc_3}{dx} + e^{m_3 x} \frac{dc_3}{dx}$$
Using one of the conditions at our disposal, let
(3) $e^{m_1 x} \frac{dc_1}{dx} + e^{m_2 x} \frac{dc_2}{dx} + e^{m_3 x} \frac{dc_3}{dx} = 0$ Then
(4) $\frac{dY}{dx} = c_1 m_1 e^{m_1 x} + c_2 m_2 e^{m_2 x} + c_3 m_3 e^{m_3 x}$
Differentiating (4)
 $\frac{d^2 x}{dx} = c_1 m_1 e^{m_1 x} + c_2 m_2 e^{m_2 x} + c_3 m_3 e^{m_3 x} + m_1 e^{m_1 x} \frac{dc_1}{dx}$
 $+ m_2 e^{m_2 x} \frac{dc_2}{dx} + m_3 e^{m_3 x} \frac{dc_3}{dx}$
Using another of the conditions at our disposal, let
(5) $m_1 e^{m_1 x} \frac{dc_1}{dx} + m_2 e^{m_2 x} \frac{dc_2}{dx} + m_3 e^{m_3 x} \frac{dc_3}{dx} = 0$. Then
(6) $\frac{d^2 x}{dx} = c_1 m_1^2 e^{m_1 x} + c_2 m_2^2 e^{m_2 x} + c_3 m_3^2 e^{m_3 x}$
Differentiating (6)
(7) $\frac{d^3 x}{dx} = c_1 m_1^2 e^{m_1 x} + c_2 m_2^2 e^{m_2 x} + c_3 m_3^2 e^{m_3 x} + m_1 e^{m_1 x} \frac{dc_3}{dx}$

Definition of the constitutes (2)

$$\frac{\delta \chi}{\delta \chi} = c_{1} a_{2} a_{1}^{2} a_{2}^{2} c_{2} a_{2} a_{2}^{2} a$$

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Substituting (2), (4), (6), and (7) in (1) we get

(8)
$$k_0m_1^2 e^{m_1x} \frac{dc_1}{dx} + k_0m_2^2 e^{m_2x} \frac{dc_2}{dx} + k_0m_3^2 e^{m_3x} \frac{dc_3}{dx} = X$$

Now (3), (5), and (8) are three linear equations in three
unknowns from which $\frac{dc_1}{dx}$, $\frac{dc_2}{dx}$, and $\frac{dc_3}{dx}$ can be found,
and c_1 , c_2 , and c_3 determined by integration. The constants
arising from this integration process produce the complementary

function again.

It can be seen from this argument that, if an n^{th} order equation were given a system of n equations in n unknowns would result, and c_1 , c_2 , ----- c_n could be determined.

If the roots of the auxiliary equation are repeated or complex imaginary, the change in the form of the complementary function does not affect the number of constants involved, and consequently causes no difference in this process.

As an illustration of this method, let us solve

$$(9) \frac{d^{2}y}{dx} - 3 \frac{d^{2}y}{dx} + 2 \frac{dy}{dx} = e^{x}$$

the equation used to illustrate the method in section 15. The complementary function is

(10)
$$Y = c_1 e^{2x} + c_2 e^{x} + c_3$$

Differentiating

 $\frac{dY}{dx} = 2 c_1 e^{2x} + c_2 e^{x} + e^{2x} \frac{dc_1}{dx} + e^{x} \frac{dc_2}{dx} + \frac{dc_3}{dx}$

Substituting (2), (4), (5), and (7) in (1) we get

(8) $k_0 m_1^{-e} m_1 x$ $\frac{dc_1}{dx} + k_0 m_2^{-e} m_2^{-x} \frac{dc_2}{dx} + k_0 m_2^{-e} m_3^{-x} \frac{dc_3}{dx} = x$ Now (5), (5), and (8) are three linear equations in three unknowns from which $\frac{dc_1}{dx} - \frac{dc_2}{dx}$, and $\frac{dc_2}{dx}$ can be found, and c_1, c_3 , and c_3 determined by integration. The constants

arising from this integration process produce the complementary function again.

It can be seen from this argument that, if an nth order equation were given a system of n squations in n unknowns would result, and c1, c2, ---- cn could be determined.

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as an illustration of this method, lot us solve

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = 3 \frac{d^2y}{dx} + 2 \frac{dy}{dx} = 0$$

the equation used to illustrate the method in section 15. The complementary function is

(10)
$$Y = c_1 e^{2\pi} + c_2 e^{\pi^2} + c_3$$

Differentiating

$$\frac{dY}{dx} = 2 c_1 e^{2x} + c_2 e^{x} + e^{2x} \frac{dc_1}{dx} + e^{x} \frac{dc_2}{dx} + \frac{dc_3}{dx}$$

Let
$$e^{2x} \frac{dc_1}{dx} + e^x \frac{dc_2}{dx} + \frac{dc_3}{dx} = 0$$
. Then
(11) $\frac{dY}{dx} = 2 c_1 e^{2x} + c_2 e^x$

Differentiating this result

-

$$\frac{d Y}{dx^2} = 4 c_1 e^{2x} + c_2 e^{x} + 2 e^{2x} \frac{dc_1}{dx} + e^{x} \frac{dc_2}{dx}$$
. Let

$$2 e^{2x} \frac{dc_1}{dx} + e^{x} \frac{dc_2}{dx} = 0.$$
 Then

(12)
$$\frac{dY}{dx} = 4 c_1 e^{2x} + c_2 e^{x}$$

Differentiating this, we get

(13)
$$\frac{d^{2}Y}{dx} = 8 c_{1}e^{2x} + c_{2}e^{x} + 4 e^{2x} dc_{1} + e^{x} \frac{dc_{2}}{dx}$$

Substituting (10), (11), (12), and (13) in (9) we get

(14) 4 e^{2x}
$$\frac{dc_1}{dx}$$
 + e^x $\frac{dc_2}{dx}$ = e^x

Solving

$$\begin{pmatrix} e^{2x} \frac{dc_1}{dx} + e^x \frac{dc_2}{dx} + \frac{dc_3}{dx} = 0 \\ 2 e^{2x} \frac{dc_1}{dx} + e^x \frac{dc_2}{dx} = 0 \\ 4 e^{2x} \frac{dc_1}{dx} + e^x \frac{dc_2}{dx} = 0 \\ 4 e^x \frac{dc_1}{dx} + e^x \frac{dc_2}{dx} = e^x \\ 4 e$$

$$\begin{aligned} z_{0} = e^{2x} \frac{d_{0}x}{d_{0}x} + \frac{e^{2}}{d_{0}x} \frac{d_{0}x}{d_{0}x} + \frac{d_{0}x}{d_{0}x} = 0, & \text{Then} \\ (11) & \frac{d_{0}x}{d_{0}x} = c_{0}e^{2x} + c_{0}e^{2x} \\ z_{0}e^{2x} + c_{0}e^{2x} + c_{0}e^{2x} + c_{0}e^{2x} \\ \frac{d_{0}}{d_{0}x} = b c_{0}e^{2x} + c_{0}e^{2x} + c_{0}e^{2x} \\ \frac{d_{0}}{d_{0}x} = b c_{0}e^{2x} + c_{0}e^{2x} + c_{0}e^{2x} \\ \frac{d_{0}}{d_{0}x} = b c_{0}e^{2x} + c_{0}e^{2x} + c_{0}e^{2x} \\ \frac{d_{0}}{d_{0}x} = b c_{0}e^{2x} + c_{0}e^{2x} + c_{0}e^{2x} \\ \frac{d_{0}}{d_{0}x} = b c_{0}e^{2x} + c_{0}e^{2x} + c_{0}e^{2x} \\ \frac{d_{0}}{d_{0}x} = b c_{1}e^{2x} + c_{0}e^{2x} + c_{0}e^{2x} \\ \frac{d_{0}}{d_{0}x} = c_{0}e^{2x} \\ \frac{d_{0}}{d_{0}x} = c_{0}e^{2x} + c_{0}e^{2x} + c_{0}e^{2x} \\ \frac{d_{0}}{d_{0}x} = e^{2x} \\ \frac{d_{0$$

$$c_{1} = -\frac{1}{2} e^{-x} + C_{1}$$

$$c_{2} = -x + C_{2}$$

$$c_{3} = \frac{1}{2} e^{x} + C_{3}$$

$$y = (C_{1} - \frac{1}{2} e^{-x})e^{2x} + (C_{2} - x)e^{x} + (C_{3} + \frac{1}{2} e^{x})$$

$$= C_{1}e^{2x} - \frac{1}{2}e^{-x} + C_{2}e^{x} - xe^{x} + C_{3} + \frac{1}{2}e^{x}$$

$$= 0_{1}e^{2x} + (C_{2} - x)e^{x} + C_{3} \quad \text{which is the same}$$
result we obtained in section 15 but in slightly different
form.

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17. Undetermined Coefficients. - This method for finding a particular integral, while not applicable in all cases, is simple when it can be used. It applies to all cases in which the right hand member of the equation contains only terms which have a finite number of distinct derivatives. Such terms are ekx, sin 1x, cos mx, and products of these, where k, 1, and m are any constants.

The particular integral is found by trial. We are seeking y = f(x) which when substituted in the given equation will reduce the left hand member to the same function that we have in the right hand member. If y occurs in the equation, this leads us to choose the terms of the right hand member, each prefixed by an undetermined multiplier, as a first trial. On substituting this value in the given equation other terms arise from the differentiation. Consequently, we select the terms of the right hand member plus the terms arising from its

 $c_{2} = -x + c_{2}$ $c_{3} = \frac{1}{2} e^{x} + c_{3}$ $c_{3} = \frac{1}{2} e^{x} + c_{3}$ $r = (c_{1} - \frac{1}{2} e^{-x})e^{x} + (c_{2} - x)e^{x} + (c_{3} + \frac{1}{2} e^{x})$ $= c_{2}e^{-x} - \frac{1}{2}e^{-x} + c_{3}e^{-x} + c_{3} + \frac{1}{2}e^{x}$ $= c_{1}e^{2x} + (c_{2} - x)e^{x} + c_{3} + c_{3} + \frac{1}{2}e^{x}$ result we obtained in section 15 but in slightly different form.

c1 = -1 e-x + 01

17. Undetermined Coefficients. - This method for finding a particular integral, while not applicable in all cases, is simple when it can be used. It applies to all cases in which the right hand member of the equation contains only terms which have a finite number of distinct derivatives. Such terms are e^{kn}, sin 1x, cos mx, and products of these,

The particular integral is found by trial. We are seeking y = f(x) which when substituted in the given equation will reduce the left hand member to the same function that we have in the right hand member. If y occurs in the squation, this leads up to choose the terms of the right hand member, each prefixed by an undetermined multiplier, as a first trial. On substituting this value in the given equation other terms arise from the differentiation. Consequently we select the terms of the right hand member olus the terms arise from the differentiation, each prefixed by an undetermined multiplier. Since this quantity is to satisfy the given equation its substitution in it results in an identity. We may then equate the coefficients of like terms to determine the unknown multipliers. This gives a particular integral which when added to the complementary function yields the general solution of the given equation.

Illustrative Example.

 $\frac{dy}{dx} + y = 2e^{x} + x^{3} - x$ Solve $Y = c_1 \cos x + c_2 \sin x$ $y_{\beta} = ae^{x} + bx^{3} - cx + dx^{2} - e$ $\frac{dy\beta}{dx} = ae^{x} + 3bx^{2} - c + 2dx$ $\frac{d^2 y \beta}{2} = a e^{x} + 6 b x + 2 d$ $\frac{d^{2}y_{\beta}}{d^{2}} + y_{\beta} = 2ae^{x} + bx^{3} + (6b - c)x + dx^{2} + bx^{3} + (b^{2} - c)x + dx^{3} + bx^{3} + bx^{3$ $(2d - e) = 2e^{x} + x^{3} - x$ a = 1b = 16 b - c = -1c = 7d = 0

differentiation, each prefixed by an undetermined nultiplier. Since this quantity is to satisfy the given equation its cubstitution in it results in an identity. We may then equate the coefficients of like terms to determine the unknown multipliers. This gives a particular integral which when solution of the complémentary function yields the general

Illustrative Brannle.

Solve $\frac{d^{3}}{dx^{2}} + y = 2e^{x} + x^{3} - x$ $Y = c_{1} \cos x + c_{2} \sin x$ $y_{1} = ae^{x} + bx^{2} - cx + dx^{2} - e$ $y_{2} = ae^{x} + bx^{2} - cx + dx^{2} - e$ $\frac{dy}{dx} = ae^{x} + 5bx^{2} - c + 2dx$ $\frac{d^{3}}{dx} + y_{2} = ae^{x} + 6bx + 2d$ $\frac{d^{3}}{dx} + y_{2} = 2ae^{x} + bx^{3} + (6b - c)x + dx^{2} + (2d - e)x + (2d - e)x$

n = 1 b = 1 6 b - c = c = 7

0 = 5

2d - e = 0

e = 0

Substituting these values in yp and adding this to the complementary function

 $y = c_1 \cos x + c_2 \sin x + e^x + x^3 - 7 x$

If y is lacking, set X equal to the lowest ordered derivative occurring in the equation and integrate to obtain y = f(x), then proceed as when y is present.

Illustration.

Solve
$$\frac{d^{2}x}{dx_{2}} + \frac{dy}{dx} = x^{2} + \cos x$$

$$Y \neq c_{1} + c_{2}e^{-x}$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = x^{2} + \cos x$$

$$y = \frac{x^{3}}{3} + \sin x + c_{3}$$

$$y_{p} = ax^{3} + bx^{2} + cx + d\cos x + e\sin x + c_{3}$$

$$\frac{dy_{p}}{dx} = 3ax^{2} + 2bx + c - d\sin x + e\cos x$$

$$\frac{d^{2}y_{p}}{dx^{2}} = 6ax + 2b - d\cos x - e\sin x$$

$$\frac{d^{2}y_{p}}{dx^{2}} = 6ax + 2b - d\cos x - e\sin x$$

$$\frac{d^{2}y_{p}}{dx^{2}} + \frac{dy_{p}}{dx} = 3ax^{2} + (6a + 2b)x + (2b + c) + (e - d)\cos x - (e + d)\sin x \equiv x^{2} + \cos x$$

2 d - e = 0 e = 0

Substituting these values in yo and adding this to the

 $y = c_1 \cos x + c_2 \sin x + e^x + x^3 - 7 x$

If y is lacking, set X equal to the lowert ordered derivative occurring in the equation and integrate to obtain y = f(x), then proceed as when y is present.

Illustration.

Solve $\frac{\partial_{x}^{2}}{\partial x_{g}} + \frac{\partial y}{\partial x} = x^{2} + \cos x$ $\frac{\gamma}{\partial x_{g}} + \frac{\partial y}{\partial x} = x^{2} + \cos x$ $\frac{\gamma}{\partial x} = x^{2} + \cos x$ $\frac{\partial y}{\partial x} = x^{2} + \cos x$ $y_{g} = ax^{3} + \sin x + c_{g}$ $\frac{\partial y}{\partial x} = 3 ax^{3} + bx^{2} + cx + d\cos x + e\sin x + c_{g}$ $\frac{\partial^{2} y}{\partial x} = 5 ax^{3} + 2bx + c + d\cos x + e\sin x + c_{g}$ $\frac{\partial^{2} y}{\partial x} = 5 ax^{3} + 2bx + c + d\cos x + e\sin x + c_{g}$ $\frac{\partial^{2} y}{\partial x} = 5 ax^{2} + 2b - d\cos x + e\sin x + c_{g}$ $\frac{\partial^{2} y}{\partial x} = 5 ax^{2} + 2b - d\cos x + e\sin x + c_{g}$ $\frac{\partial^{2} y}{\partial x} = 5 ax^{2} + 2b - d\cos x + e\sin x + c_{g}$ $\frac{\partial^{2} y}{\partial x} = 5 ax^{2} + 2b - d\cos x + e\sin x + c_{g}$ $\frac{\partial^{2} y}{\partial x} = 5 ax^{2} + 2b - d\cos x + e\sin x$ $\frac{\partial^{2} y}{\partial x} = 5 ax^{2} + (5a + 2b)x + (2b + c) + (a + d) \sin x = x^{2} + \cos x$

$$a = \frac{1}{3}$$

$$6 a + 2 b = 0$$

$$b = -1$$

$$2 b + c = 0$$

$$c = 2$$

$$e - d = 1$$

$$-e - d = 0$$

$$d = -\frac{1}{2}$$

$$e = \frac{1}{2}$$

Substituting these values in yp and adding to Y

$$y = c_1 + c_2 e^{-x} + \frac{1}{3}x^3 - x^2 + 2x - \frac{1}{2}\cos x + \frac{1}{2}\sin x$$

If u is a term of the complementary function and also of the right hand member of

(1)
$$k_0 \frac{d^n y}{dx} + k_1 \frac{d^n y}{dx} + \dots + k_n y = X.$$

the method will fail, for the substitution of u or any of its derivatives for y in it will not give rise to u. From, Theory of Equations we know that if m is an rth order root of a given rational integral equation, then it is an (r-1)th order root of its first derivative, (r-2)th order root of its second derivative and so on to its (r-1)th derivative. If m is a simple root of the auxiliary equation

 8 = 1

 8 = 1

 6 a + 2

 6 a + 1

 2 b + 1

 6 a + 2

 6 a + 2

 6 a + 1

 6 a + 2

 7 a + 2

 8 a + 2

 9 a + 1

 9 a + 1

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Substituting these values in y and adding to T

$$y = c_1 + c_2 e^{-x} + \frac{3}{5} = x^2 + 2x - \frac{1}{2} \cos x + \frac{1}{2} \sin x$$

If u is a term of the complementary function and also of the right hand member of

(1)
$$k_0 \frac{d^n y}{dx} + k_1 \frac{d^{n-1} y}{dx} + \dots + k_n y = X.$$

the method will fail, for the substitution of u or any of its derivatives for y in it will not give rise to u. From Theory of Equations we know that if m is an r^{th} order root of a given rational integral equation, then it is an $(r-1)^{th}$ order root of its first derivative, $(r-2)^{th}$ order root of its second derivative and so on to its $(r-1)^{th}$ derivativo, if m is a

$$k_0 m^n + k_1 m^{n-1} + \dots + k_n = 0$$

it will not be a root of its first derivative. This amounts to saying that if u, due to m, is particular integral of

(2)
$$k_0 \frac{d^n y}{dx^n} + k_1 \frac{d^{n-1} y}{dx^{n-1}} + \dots + k_n y = 0,$$

it is not a particular integral of its first derivative. Now if we are to keep u in the discussion, we must use some form of it which on substitution in (1) will give rise to it. This suggests the substitution of xu for y in (1). This results in

$$k_0 x \frac{d^n u}{dx^n} + k_0 n \frac{d^{n-1} u}{dx^{n-1}} + k_1 x \frac{d^{n-1} u}{dx^{n-1}} + k_1 (n-1) \frac{d^{n-2} u}{dx^{n-2}}$$

$$+ - - - + k_{n-1}x \frac{du}{dx} + k_{n-1}u + k_nxu = X$$

Grouping

$$x(k_{0} \frac{d^{n} u}{dx^{n}} + k_{1} \frac{d^{n-1} u}{dx^{n-1}} + \dots + k_{n}u) +$$

$$(k_{0} n \frac{d^{n-1} u}{dx^{n-1}} + k_{1}(n-1) \frac{d^{n-2} u}{dx^{n-2}} + \dots + k_{n-1}u) = X$$

The first parenthesis vanishes but the second, which involves the derivative of (2), does not. Hence we have u and terms arising from it by differentiation and nothing more.

Similarly if u is due to an r fold root, then it is a particular integral of (2) and its first (r-1) derivatives. Hence x^ru is the form we would select in place of u.

 $k_0 m^n + k_1 m^{n-1} + \dots + k_n = 0$

it will not be a root of its first derivative. This amounts to saying that if u, due to m, is particular integral of

(2)
$$\log \frac{d^n x}{dx^n} + k_1 \frac{d^{n-1} y}{dx^{n-1}} + \dots + k_n y = 0,$$

it is not a particular integral of its first derivative. Now if we are to keep u in the discussion, we must use some form of it which on substitution in (1) will give rise to it. This suggests the substitution of xu for y in (1). This results in

$$\int_{x} \frac{d^{n}}{dx^{n}} + k_{0}n \frac{d^{n-1}}{dx^{n-1}} + k_{1}x \frac{d^{n-1}}{dx^{n-1}} + k_{1}(n-1) \frac{d^{n-2}n}{dx^{n-2}}$$

$$+ \dots + k_{n-2}x \frac{dn}{dx} + k_{n-1}u + k_{n}xu = X$$

Grouping

$$x(x_0, \frac{d}{dx}^n + x_1, \frac{d}{dx}^{n-1} + \dots + x_n x) \qquad + (x_0, \frac{d}{dx}^{n-1} + x_1) \qquad + (x_0, \frac{d}{dx}^{n-1} + x_1(n-1), \frac{d}{dx}^{n-2} + \dots + x_{n-1}x) = x$$
(x_0, $\frac{d}{dx}^{n-1} + x_1(n-1), \frac{d}{dx}^{n-2} + \dots + x_{n-1}x) = x$
The first parenthesis vanishes but the second, which involves the derivative of (2), does not. Hence we have u and terms arising from it by differentiation and nothing more.
Similarly if u is due to an r fold root, then it is a

particular integral of (2) and its first (r-1) derivatives. Hence $\pi^{T}u$ is the form we would select in place of u_{*} To illustrate this principle for a simple root of the auxiliary equation let us solve

$$\frac{d^{2}Y}{dx} - y = e^{X}$$

$$Y = c_{1}e^{X} + c_{2}e^{-X}$$

$$y_{\mu} = Axe^{X} + Be^{X}$$

$$\frac{d^{2}Y_{\mu}}{dx} = Axe^{X} + Ae^{X} + Be^{X}$$

$$\frac{d^{2}Y_{\mu}}{dx} = Axe^{X} + 2Ae^{X} + Be^{X}$$

$$\frac{d^{2}Y_{\mu}}{dx} = Axe^{X} + 2Ae^{X} + Be^{X}$$

$$\frac{d^{2}Y_{\mu}}{dx} - y_{\mu} = 2Ae^{X} \equiv e^{X}$$

$$A = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$y = c_{1}e^{X} + c_{2}e^{-X} + \frac{1}{2}xe^{X}$$
For an illustration of a multiple root let us solve
$$\frac{d^{3}x}{dx^{3}} - 3\frac{dx}{dx} - 2y = e^{-X}$$

$$Y = c_{1}e^{-X} + c_{2}xe^{-X} + c_{3}e^{2X}$$

$$y_{\mu} = Ax^{2}e^{-X} + Bxe^{-X} + Ce^{-X}$$

$$\frac{d^{2}Y_{\mu}}{dx} = -Ax^{2}e^{-X} + (2A-B)xe^{-X} + (B-C)e^{-X}$$

$$\frac{d^{2}Y_{\mu}}{dx} = Ax^{2}e^{-X} - (4A-B)xe^{-X} + (2A-2B+C)e^{-X}$$

To illustrate this principle for a simple root of the

$$\frac{d^2}{dx} + dx = e^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

$$1 = c_1e^{\frac{1}{2}} + c_2e^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

$$1 = c_1e^{\frac{1}{2}} + c_2e^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

$$\frac{1}{c_2} = c_2e^{\frac{1}{2}} + c_2e^{\frac{1}{2}} + c_2e^{\frac{1}{2}} + c_2e^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

$$\frac{d^2}{dx} = c_2e^{\frac{1}{2}} + c_2e^{\frac{1}{2}} + c_2e^{\frac{1}{2}} + c_2e^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

$$\frac{d^2}{dx} = c_2e^{\frac{1}{2}} + c_2e^{\frac{1}{2}} + c_2e^{\frac{1}{2}} + c_2e^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

$$\frac{d^2}{dx} = c_2e^{\frac{1}{2}} + c_2e^{\frac{1}{2}} + c_2e^{\frac{1}{2}} + c_2e^{\frac{1}{2}}$$
To come an illustration of a multiplie to to come and the let a to come an

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$$\frac{d^{3}y_{P}}{dx} = -Ax^{2}e^{-x} + (6A-B)xe^{-x} - (6A-3B+C)e^{-x}$$

$$\frac{d^{3}y_{P}}{dx} - 3 \frac{dy_{P}}{dx} - 2 y = (6A-B-2B-6A+3B)xe^{-x}$$

$$-(6A-3B+C+3B-3C+2C)e^{-x} = e^{-x}$$

$$A = -\frac{1}{6}$$

$$y = c_{1}e^{-x} + c_{2}xe^{-x} + c_{3}e^{2x} - \frac{1}{6}x^{2}e^{-x}$$

This method will fail again if a term of the form x^tu, where u is a term of the complementary function, occurs in the right hand member of the given equation. A modification similar to the one used in the preceding discussion applies here. To simplify the argument suppose that we have a third order equation

(1)
$$k_0 \frac{dy}{dx} + k_1 \frac{dy}{dx} + k_2 \frac{dy}{dx} + k_3y = X$$

and that u is due to a simple root of its auxiliary equation. The previous discussion leads us to substitute x^{t+1}u for y in (1). Substituting and grouping we get

$$\frac{d^{t+1}\left[k_{0} \frac{d^{3} u}{dx^{3}} + k_{1} \frac{d^{2} u}{dx^{2}} + k_{3} \frac{du}{dx} + k_{3}u\right]}{(t+1)x^{t}\left[3k_{0} \frac{d^{2} u}{dx^{2}} + 2k_{1} \frac{du}{dx} + k_{2}u\right]} + (t+1)tx^{t-1}\left[3k_{0} \frac{du}{dx} + k_{1}u\right] + (t+1)t(t-1)x^{t-2}\left[k_{0}u\right] = x$$

$$\frac{\partial^{2}}{\partial x} = -Ax^{2} e^{-x} + (6A-3)xe^{-x} - (6A-33+0)e^{-x}$$

$$\frac{\partial^{2}}{\partial x} = -Ax^{2} e^{-x} + (6A-3)xe^{-x} - (6A-33+0)e^{-x}$$

$$\frac{\partial^{2}}{\partial x} = -2y = (6A-32)xe^{-x}$$

$$-(6A-38+6+34)xe^{-x} = -2$$

 $y = c_1 e^{-x} + c_2 x e^{-x} + c_3 e^{2x} - \frac{1}{2} x^2 e^{-x}$

This method will fail again if a term of the form $x^{b}u$, where u is a term of the complementary function, occurs in the right hand number of the given equation. A modification similar to the one used in the preceding discussion applies here. To simplify the argument suppose that we have a third order equation

(1)
$$k_0 \frac{d}{dx} + k_1 \frac{d}{dx} + k_2 \frac{dy}{dx} + k_3y = x$$

and that u is due to a simple root of its auxiliary equation. The previous discussion leads us to substitute $x^{t+1}u$ for y in (1). Substituting and grouping we get

$$c^{t+1} \left[z_0 \frac{d}{dx} \frac{u}{dx} + z_1 \frac{d}{dx} \frac{u}{dx} + z_2 \frac{du}{dx} + z_3 \frac{du}{dx} + z_3 u \right] + (t+1)x^{t} \left[3z_0 \frac{d}{dx} \frac{u}{dx} + 2z_1 \frac{du}{dx} + z_3 u \right] + (t+1)t(t-1)x^{t-2} \left[z_0 u \right] = x$$

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The first group will vanish, but the others will not, and hence x^tu and terms arising from it by differentiation result, and no more.

It can be readily seen that, if an nth order equation were given, a similar result would be obtained.

If u is due to a double root of the auxiliary equation of (1), the substitution of $x^{t+2}u$ for y is suggested by the preceding multiple root discussion. Substituting and grouping we get

$$x^{t+2} \left[k_0 \frac{d^3 u}{dx^3} + k_1 \frac{d^2 u}{dx^2} + k_2 \frac{d u}{dx} + k_3 u \right] + (t+2) x^{t+1} \left[3 k_0 \frac{d^2 u}{dx^2} + 2 k_1 \frac{d u}{dx} + k_2 u \right] + (t+2) (t+1) x^t \left[k_0 \frac{d u}{dx} + k_1 u \right] + \left[(t+2) (t+1) t x^{t-1} u \right] = X$$

The first two groups vanish, but the others do not. Hence x u and terms arising from it by differentiation result, and no more.

Similarly, if we have an n^{th} order equation and if u is due to an r fold root, the substitution of $x^{t+r}u$ for y will give rise to $x^{t}u$ and terms arising from it by differentiation, and none other.

As an illustration let us solve

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx} - 2 \frac{dy}{dx} + y = x^2 e^x$$

The first group will vanish, but the others will not, and hence x^tu and torms arising from it by differentiation result, and no more.

It can be readily seen that, if an ath order equation were given, a similar result would be oftained.

If a is due to a double root of the auxiliary equation of (1), the substitution of $x^{t+2}a$ for y is suggested by the preceding multiple root discussion. Substituting and grouping we get

$$t+2\left[z_{0}\frac{\dot{a}\cdot u}{dx} + z_{1}\frac{\dot{a}\cdot u}{dx} + z_{2}\frac{\dot{a}\cdot u}{dx} + z_{3}\frac{\dot{a}\cdot u}{dx} + z_{3}u\right] + (t+2)x^{t+1}\left[3z_{0}\frac{\dot{a}\cdot u}{dx} + z_{1}\frac{\dot{a}\cdot u}{dx} + z_{1}\frac{\dot{a}\cdot u}{dx} + z_{3}u\right] + (t+2)(t+1)x^{t}\left[z_{0}\frac{\dot{a}\cdot u}{dx} + z_{1}u\right] + (t+2)(t+1)(tx^{t-1}u] =$$

The first two groups vanish, but the others do not. Hence x^tu and terms arising from it by differentiation result, and no more.

Similarly, if we have an n^{th} order equation and if u is due to an r fold root, the substitution of $x^{t+r}u$ for y will give rise to $x^{t}u$ and terms arising from it by differentiation, and none other.

As an illustration let us solve

 $\frac{dt}{dt} = 2 \frac{dy}{dx} + y = x^{a} x$

$$Y = c_1 e^{X} + c_2 x e^{X}$$

$$y_p = a_x e^{X} + b_x e^{X} + c_x^2 e^{X}$$

$$= (a_x^4 + b_x^3 + c_x^2) e^{X}$$

$$\frac{d_y p}{dx} = (a_x^4 + b_x^3 + c_x^2) e^{X} + (4 a_x^3 + 3 b_x^2 + 2 c_x) e^{X}$$

$$\frac{d^2 y_p}{dx^2} = (a_x^4 + b_x^3 + c_x^2) e^{X} + 2(4 a_x^3 + 3 b_x^2 + 2 c_x) e^{X}$$

$$+ (12 a_x^2 + 6 b_x + 2 c_x) e^{X}$$

$$\frac{d^2 y_p}{dx^2} = 2 \frac{d_y p}{d_x} + y_p = 12 a_x^2 e^{X} + 6 b_x e^{X} + 2 c_x^2 e^{X} = x^2 e^{X}$$

$$12 a = 1 \qquad b = 0$$

 $a = \frac{1}{12} c = 0$ $y = c_1 e^{x} + c_2 x e^{x} + \frac{1}{12} x^4 e^{x}$

<u>Summary and Conclusions</u>. - The problem of solving linear differential equations resolves itself into two parts, finding a particular integral and the complementary function.

The finding of the complementary function when the equation has constant coefficients depends wholly upon the solution of an auxiliary equation which is a rational integral function involving a single variable. This solution may become involved if the order of the given equation is high, but otherwise no difficulty is encountered. The form of the 34

 $T = c_1 e^{T} + c_2 x e^{T}$ $T = c_1 e^{T} + b_2 e^{T} + c_2 e^{T}$ $= (ax^{6} + bx^{6} + cx^{6})e^{T}$ $= (ax^{6} + bx^{3} + cx^{2})e^{T}$ $\frac{dx}{dx} = (ax^{6} + bx^{3} + cx^{2})e^{T} + (4 ax^{3} + 3 bx^{2} + 2 cx)e^{T}$ $\frac{dx}{dx} = (ax^{6} + bx^{6} + cx^{2})e^{T} + 2(4 ax^{3} + 3 bx^{2} + 2 cx)e^{T}$ $\frac{dx}{dx} = (ax^{6} + bx^{6} + cx^{2})e^{T} + 2(4 ax^{3} + 3 bx^{2} + 2 cx)e^{T}$

 $\frac{d^2}{dx} - 2 \frac{dyb}{dx} + y_p = 12 ax^2 e^x + 6 bxe^x + 2 ce^x = x^2 e^x$ $12 a = 1 \qquad b = 0$ $a = \frac{1}{12} \qquad c = 0$ $y = c_1 e^x + c_2 xe^x + \frac{1}{79} x^2 e^x$

Summary and Conclusions. - The problem of solving linear differential equations resolves itself into two parts, finding a particular integral and the complementary function.

The finding of the complementary function when the equation has constant coefficients depends wholly upon the solution of an surfliary equation which is a rational integral function involving a single variable. This solution may become

> involved if the order of the given equation is high, but otherwise no difficulty is encountered. The form of the

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complementary function is exponential or trigonometric according as the roots of the auxiliary equation are real or complex imaginary.

The finding of the particular integral when the equation has constant coefficients may be accomplished by Variation of Parameters, Differential Operator Method, or Undetermined Coefficients. The first two methods have the advantage of absolute generality, but, because they involve integrations, may become laborious when the order of the equation is high. The last method, while not perfectly general, applies in many cases and, as a rule, is to be preferred to the others whenever it can be used because it involves only differentiations and the solution of simultaneous linear algebraic equations. This work also may become long if the order of the equation is high, but usually it is no longer than the other methods, if as long. complementary function is exponential or trigonometric according as the roots of the auxiliary equation are real or complex function.

The finding of the particular integral when the equation has constant coefficients may be accomplished by Variation of Parameters, Differential Operator Method, or Undetermined Coefficients. The first two methods have the advantage of absolute generality, but, because they involve integrations, may become laborious when the order of the equation is high. The last method, while not perfectly general, applies in whenever it can be used because it involves only differentiations and the solution of simultaneous linear algebraic equations. This work also may become long if the order of the overtion is high, but newally it is no longer than the other methods, if as long.

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